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ELEMENTARY HISTORY TEACHING IN THE LABORATORY SCHOOL.

II.

In the next year, age nine, a change is noticeable in the attitude of the child toward his work. Some reflection is noticeable between the inception of a thought and the attempt to embody it either in words or in action. The child is beginning to select from the impulses that come into his mind those that lead toward the attainment of the object in mind, whether that object be the successive steps necessary to be taken to obtain an end or the order in which sentences shall be expressed to make a thought clear. It is the period when the child is beginning more consciously to form his methods of work and to consider his ideas of values. He begins to be interested in *how* he is to accomplish an end; he is interested in reducing methods to some system.[1]

With many educators the difference between the facts they would give to children and those they would give to university students consists merely in amount, provided the subject could be used at all with children. The more mature mind is expected to grasp and hold more, and to have more in mind to which the facts given at any one time will relate. There is, however, a fundamental difference which is overlooked in this conception. It is a difference in regard to the *use* of facts. If facts are considered as material for constructing mental imagery, the difference is seen more clearly. Education is a process of remaking experience in the presence of new facts, and a child may not be able to remake an adult's experiences. He may accept them, remember them, and recall them when asked for; but they do not therefore become a part of his experience. Dr. Thomas Balliet once visited a class in Latin and asked what the word *manus* meant. No one knew. He then wrote the Greek equivalent, *manus = cheiro,* and asked: "Now, how many know what *manus* means?" Every hand was raised. Here was a new fact, but as no child could translate either the Greek or the Latin word into his own language, he could not take the new fact into his experience as a growth in language.

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[1] Dr. Dewey's statement of this period is found in the *Elementary School Record* for May, 1900: "This is the transition to 'voluntary' attention, but only the transition. The latter comes fully into being only when the child entertains results in the form of problems or questions the solution of which he is to seek for himself. In the intervening stage (in the child from eight to, say, eleven or twelve), while the child directs a series of intervening activities on the basis of some end he wishes to reach, this end is something to be done or made, or some tangible result to be reached; the problem is a practical difficulty, rather than an intellectual question. But with growing power the child can conceive of the end as something to be found out, discovered; and can control his acts and images so as to help in inquiry and solution. This is reflective attention proper. . . . . In general, this growth is a natural psychical process. But the proper recognition and use of it is perhaps the most serious problem in instruction upon the intellectual side. A person who has gained the power of reflective attention, the power to hold problems, questions, before the mind, *is* in so far, intellectually speaking, educated. He has mental discipline—power *of* the mind and *for* the mind. Without this the mind remains at the mercy of custom and external suggestion."

This view of the process of acquiring knowledge is not merely psychological; it is philosophical. It necessitates a radically different conception of the attitude of the mind of the learner and a different point of view of the function of the teacher. In this conception of education the subject-matter is the raw material with which the mind of the child works; it is that out of which he constructs. The constructions we call images. They are ideas. They grow and change from year to year, even from day to day, as the child changes in height, weight, and expression. They are the character of the person, as inseparable from him as his voice, his glance. The teacher cannot do this constructing. She may classify the material, acquaint the child with the value of the different parts, guide him in detecting that which is true and that which is false, the valuable and the trivial; and do this in so simple terms that his past experience enables him to comprehend the new facts. The normal attitude of a healthy child-mind is eagerness to know; it is only when knowledge is presented in a form that makes it difficult to comprehend, or is of a kind that is unsuitable, that the mind rebels.

This does not mean that the child should not accept statements from adults, or that he must reason out for himself abstruse questions of religion or politics. It merely means that, unless the bringing to the child's mind of new experience is in a form that he can assimilate into his own thought and past experience, it remains in his mind merely as a weight to be carried. Each mind is strong enough to carry a certain amount of "weight" until the time when it can be transformed into mind-stuff, but when the amount becomes too great, mental dyspepsia and the stoppage of normal action result. An instructor at the University of Chicago, whose interest in his own special subject was very profound, once said that "every professor is compelled to carry about a lot of impediments in the way of information, for fear some fool will find out he hasn't got it." Fortunately most minds forget promptly what they cannot use, so that it does not remain as impediments. But the waste of time in teaching that which can only be forgotten!

The problem of the teacher, at the beginning of the reflective stage, becomes more complex. In general she must see that the subject-matter of history is so presented that the child's mind will reach out, question, examine, and analyze the forces at work in causing the men and women who make up his part of history to act thus and so, in order to understand how their acts aided or hindered progress. History now becomes less empirical and more a matter of authentic record, so that the question of a definite recall of what has been studied comes more into the scheme. The attack upon the subject-matter is different; it is not so much a question of how a people *might* meet a problem of conditions as a question of *fact* and why it happened. During the previous years the child has gained some conception of space-relations in his study of the world as a whole; definite time has meant little. He must now get some idea of the effect of time. This begins vaguely, but as the study proceeds, a knowledge of dates as an aid in comparing events is found essential. The child is still studying indirect sociology, and his study must be one of types, in order that he may gain independent methods of work which will enable him to understand other problems of history. A statement of the problem at this age is given by Dr. Dewey in his article on "The Psychology of the Elementary Curriculum," in the *Elementary School Record,* December, 1900.

This introductory statement applies to the work in history up to the secondary-school period, when the mental attitude may again require a change in the treatment of subject-matter.

The subject-matter of these years might be greatly varied from that given below and yet have the same educational value. It is believed, however, that the study of the child's own country best serves the aim of the work, and in his own country his own locality first.

Three months are first given to the study of Chicago, the French explorers, and the early settlers in the Northwest. This gives an opportunity to enlarge the concepts formed in the study of the Phœnicians and the early explorers. Marquette, like Livingstone, is actuated by religious motives in exiling himself from his native land; Joliet as a trader, by the same impulses which sent the Phœnician merchants off on long and hazardous voyages. In searching for natural highways into the interior of America, the child finds the Mississippi and St. Lawrence as he found the Nile, Niger, Congo, and Zambezi in his study of Africa. He can therefore compare the American rivers with those of Africa, the Indians with the negroes, and the difference in development of tribes in America with those of the other peoples he has studied. The new type in history is a study of the development of a city from a fort and trading post to the form which the child sees about him. The children are told, or read themselves, the story of the first trip of Marquette and the winter spent by him at Chicago, the story of the development of the trading post, the building of the fort, and the coming of pioneers, and they trace the development of the city to the time of the great fire. This includes the isolation of the early pioneer and his means of getting his furs to the seacoast, his tools, weapons, manner of living, etc. In imagination the child sees the frontier life develop into a thriving village, with need of a local government, system of taxation, improvements, etc. Through this discussion he is guided to comprehend simple forms of civic politics, so that the paved and sewered streets, the policeman and the post-man, the alderman and the mayor, with all of which he has been somewhat familiar, have now more definite parts in the social world. Again he has a type of development which will aid him in comprehending the development of other cities.

After a study of Chicago, the rest of the year is given to the study of typical American colonies: Virginia as a southern colony, Massachusetts as a northern one. The connection is made by remembering where the Chicago citizens came from, and then going back to see how these people came to the Atlantic coast and how they first lived there. The church and the state as institutions come in now as parts of the social life of a people. In the study of colonial history efforts toward religious and political freedom underlie the life of the people. With the child, as with the colonists, the question is first one of how a people accustomed to civilization, suddenly removed to a new country at a great distance, can work out anew the question of living. On the side of England the question is: How can these colonies, started in order to draw from the new world the wealth which had made her rival, Spain, so strong, serve England's interests? The class studies what happened and gets as much as it is able to comprehend of the deeper questions. Naturally the first question is how the people in the new land can be kept alive, since they could not live as the Indians did, independent of the civilization from which they have come. When the new country has become sufficiently established to be able to exchange products for European manufactures, the question becomes an economic one. By this time the colonies feel strong enough to resist, and then comes the desire for independence which resulted in the Revolution.

The first consideration is, of course, the character of the people who came and their reasons for coming—the character of the land they found, their first attempts at establishing themselves, and the forms of government.

An attempt was made to get the children to eliminate those conveniences of civilization with which they are familiar until they began to realize how it would seem to live in America without a single railroad, steamboat, or road of any kind except

Indian trails and rivers; to be dependent upon England for every yard of cloth not brought with them, and for salt, pepper, sugar, vinegar, tea, coffee, etc.; to imagine how it would seem to have no fuel except wood, no means of lighting a fire except flint and steel; to have no oil for lamps, no cattle from which to get milk and butter; to have to build houses of logs, since there were no saw-mills. The children discuss the new conditions of life that must be met; for England was just beginning her empire and had to learn by experience the art of colonization. Methods of preparing food for indefinite preservation were unknown. Before fields in the new country could be cultivated, forests must be destroyed; and the Englishman knew but one way, that of swinging his broadax, until taught by his Indian neighbors to girdle a tree in the spring, before the sap began to run, either by cutting around it or by fire; for the Indian had only a stone ax. But when the green trees had been cut down with much blistering of hands and aching of arms, the settlers found that their English wheat, planted in the warm climate and fertile soil, sprang up rapidly and grew so fast that it all went to stalk, leaving the muscular strength as the only reward for the labor.

A vivid description of the settlement of Virginia and the motives which led to it is followed by a discussion of why things were as the historian describes them; whether the starving time was due solely to the "community of goods" system and consequent idleness on the part of the gentlemen who came to find gold, or whether it might not in part be accounted for by the lack of knowledge of soil and farming, and the difficulties of clearing ground with such methods as they then had. The children are thus interested in discovering that the English did not know how to plant corn until John Smith compelled an Indian to teach them. A few facts about Captain John Smith were sufficient to create a desire to know all about him, from his marvelous adventures in Turkey through his services to the Virginia colony and his exploration and naming of New England. The children thought his importance to the colony so great that they expected complete failure after he left, and, because it verified their predictions, were pleased to discover that, through attacks of the Indians (no longer intimidated by Smith), disease, and famine, the colony was reduced from five hundred to about sixty persons in a year.

A statement of the effect of tobacco in exhausting the soil was used to imagine the changes that would follow in the life of the people when tobacco was found to be the best possible export for Virginia, and especially when the value of slaves in cultivating it was discovered. It was easily seen that the large plantations, each with its own wharf, would make towns impossible, and that lack of towns would affect education, the demand for professional men, the army, and social life in all forms. But tobacco as an economic factor was not discovered until many experiments had been made; so the attempts to make Virginia a wine-growing country and a producer of raw silk were given as illustrations of efforts to make the new colony of benefit to the mother-country.

In following in story form the development of the first permanent English colony the child learns more than the mere facts. In considering the life of John Smith, or any other hero of the early times, he sees a whole life in perspective. He has had little experience with people that will aid him in judging character. In the study of characters in history the motives of action and the results stand out prominently; youth with its conditions and age as it has worked out its life are brought together. Thus the lives of historical personages bring to the child, in a sense, contact with the experiences of long life. This character study is made in connection with its natural setting, as the child images the life of the people and the times. That these persons studied are ancestors of himself or his friends gives a deeper interest to the work, and, as he identifies himself with the colony, he appreciates those who help on, and is indignant with those who hinder, progress; and this helping or hindering, he comprehends, is not a mere question of *willing,* but depends upon what a man *is* and has power to do. Therefore his conception of his own social world is becoming clearer, and he begins to get a glimpse of the close network which binds every individual to every other.

In the study of early colonial history the child is also getting an idea of law and government. The child of nine or ten has little idea of abstract law. Law is to him what he believes to be just and right, and this conception is to be enforced by his own strength. This was clearly indicated when the question of dispute over a boundary line occurred. To make the problem concrete, the children were asked to suppose two men to disagree about the place of a fence between their adjoining lots. What could be done about it? Almost without exception the children identified themselves with the man whose land would be decreased by moving the fence. They conceived only of the two involved as having any part in the matter, and the only solution suggested was that "some dark night the fence be moved back" to where the injured man thought it ought to be. When it was suggested that the next night the other man might move it back again, and that this might be kept up indefinitely, the gravity of the situation kept the class silent for a few minutes. Resort to violence was suggested, and that each get his friends to help. Original grants, resort to a judge, etc., seemed, when suggested by the teacher, much less likely to be a just solution.

From such crude ideas of law and government the children are led to consider the value to the colonists of the assembly and its share in the government, the question of the prerogatives of an assembly, the rights of a governor, the rights of the unrepresented people, etc. The study of colonial history, therefore, furnished only the "carrying medium" for the deeper and more universal study of the adaptation of a civilized people to the primitive conditions of a new environment, the study of character, the training of judgment. In these early days the prototype of our democratic form of government was worked out, and the child who is just beginning to be interested in the city and national elections is able to comprehend how they began.

In New England the colonial question has a different phase in the religious reasons which induced the Pilgrims and Puritans to leave their native land and seek homes in a new country. Commercial products in New England were different from those in Virginia, because of the difference in latitude and physiographical conditions. Lumber, fish, and furs are their exports. But the difficulties involved in exchanging these to the best advantage bring out the same trouble with England which Virginia had experienced with tobacco; the navigation laws begin to be enforced, and thus New England and Virginia, two colonies greatly unlike in the beginning, unite in opposition.

The question of contact with the natives in America gave an opportunity to review and enlarge concepts formed in the preceding year's study. Previous knowledge of primitive man, of Eskimos and Africans, and of Phœnician traders, is now brought to bear upon a people living in a temperate climate, and affords a basis for comparison as to the way in which the Indians had worked out their degree of civilization. In getting land from the Indians the same methods were used that have prevailed through the ages when a people with superior weapons and brains in sufficient number meet an inferior people. The question of the higher moral attitude in a few individuals, as when the Pilgrims and Willam Penn paid the Indians for the land they occupied, is seen. John Eliot is an Englishman who has the salvation of the souls of the heathen as much at heart as Marquette or Livingstone. The question of the development of government has different phases, and thus there is opportunity for comparison and for an enlarged view. New types of character are also studied as developed in New England.

The fur trader in colonial life was the pioneer of the pioneer. It was he who made friends with the Indians and discovered the fertile fields along the valleys and the naval stores in the pathless forests. The place where he waited to meet the Indians at stated seasons, the "fall line" of the navigable rivers, or the mouth of a tributary became the first rude village in the back country. These were the places where navigation by water ceased and boats must either be carried around a fall or across a strip of land—a "portage" to the next river. These little "trapper" stations were often surrounded by fields and cattle, as a permanent station was established, and grew gradually into straggling villages, especially if the falls furnished the power for a saw-mill and the surrounding hills the lumber. These little villages were the bulwarks of the older settlements. The life of the fur trader gives a truer picture of pioneer life than a general description of the first year at Plymouth, or than any one colony alone, because one is typical of pioneer life throughout the colonies, and the other of only one locality. In finding the routes of the first fur traders the boy or girl is getting his geography in the natural way—as the fur trader got his. He is getting also a lesson in commercial relations, if he finds out how the trader knew where there were furs and how he made his bargains with the Indians; why they decided on a particular meeting-place; how he obtained the right to trade; how he managed his business—whether the furs were tanned for him by the Indians or by his own men; where the furs were sold; whether duty was demanded, and how much; what was exchanged for furs in England, and what became of the exchange when brought to America. To discover this the child must be referred to books where he can find the facts; and in thus following out a line of thought he is getting a method of historical investigation as well as the power of drawing conclusions from facts. Moreover, he cannot, if he would, forget the facts, and it has all come about through his human interests and must react in broadening and deepening his sympathies. He is not only acquiring a knowledge of facts; he is being educated, refined, cultivated.

Expansion back from the Atlantic coast is also a typical condition, and can be well illustrated in the history of New England. Here the valleys run chiefly north and south, and in the valleys alone could the soil be made to yield fair returns. Northfield, Deerfield, Greenfield, Westfield, Springfield, etc., as the names of towns indicate the character of the land. The head of the valley could best be protected by settlers, and, as a reward for greater dangers, fertile fields could be appropriated. Expansion, therefore, was along the line of rivers, moving up the valleys. Narrow valleys necessitated rapid expansion; broader valleys were longer in being filled. Professor Frederick J. Turner, in his article on "The Significance of the Frontier in History," in the *Fifth Herbart Yearbook,* carries this idea out in explaining the expansion of the middle Northwest.

Lumbering and fishing are two industries which had much to do with the growth of the colony and with its political difficulties, and can be carried out as fully as the subject of the fur trade.

In studying one type fully, hidden causes are discovered which help to cultivate the investigating spirit. That the fishing banks of Newfoundland were the most prolific of the world is not taken as a statement merely, but the desire to find out to what this is due is aroused. This brings out the fact that the icebergs of the North melt in the warmer waters of the South, depositing the dust and débris they have carried; and this continually renews the soil on these shallow banks, making a fine feeding-place for worms. The worms attract the fish, which retreat to the colder and more brackish waters to spawn, but come here to feed.

In this year the ability to read and write is sufficient to make it possible to use books as a means of getting facts, and writing as a way of preserving records of work done. The plan has been to make this introduction to the use of books a habit which is to be followed throughout life. Books are used as a means to an end. A question is raised on which the book is conceived to be capable of throwing some light, and the table of contents or index is used to refer to the part needed. Occasionally the teacher refers the children to two books giving contradictory statements, in order that the child shall not acquire the habit of believing everything in print. A number of books which children of this age can themselves use, and which furnish much supplementary material to that taken up in class, are kept in the history room, where they may be referred to whenever desired. Each child purchased two books for use in class in the history of Virginia, and two for that of New England. But these were read as material supplementary to what the teacher gave orally. Map-modeling was chiefly in sand, but relief maps were referred to constantly in study.

In habits of work the plan has been first to contemplate and discuss the situation, and what the members of the class would deem best to be done, were they the colonists; next, either from the teacher or books, to discover just what was done; then to decide what would probably be the effect of the action or decision; then again to find out what history states as a result. The question of comparison of situations was taken up to see whether any other people whom we have had decided differently in a similar situation, and, if so, the result in their case.

The children are encouraged to draw conclusions from the facts at hand, and even to insist upon the validity of their conclusions from the data they have, always, however, with the feeling that more data, which may change the conclusion, may be discovered. One day, in talking over the question of precipitation of rainfall and its return to the clouds, one child insisted that, if all the springs were feeding the rivers, and all the rain fed the rivers, and all the rivers led into the oceans, either the seas would become bigger and bigger, and wash away all the land, or the clouds which absorbed the water would get bigger and bigger, and obscure the sun all the time. The teacher, thinking he was considering each process separately, tried to explain that both evaporation and precipitation were taking place all the time; but this did not seem to meet his difficulty. His earnestness in insisting that his conclusions must be right led to going back to the beginning, when it was discovered that he had thought the springs were the result of internal waters, unconnected with rainfall.

The habit of quickly recognizing what one does not know, and of investigating that, is also insisted upon. A word of which the meaning is not clear, a paragraph where the thought is obscure, a reference that is not understood, must be inquired into. One must be able to know what he does not know in order to learn.

This is the beginning of the teaching how to study, and is closely related to the gathering together in one's mind and arranging in order all that is known about the subject at hand. The aim of the teacher is to get the children to systematize their knowledge through their interest and their pleasure in the result. This must be done very simply at first, merely recalling where the same name has occurred before and in what circumstances, but leads gradually to power to hold the mind to a general thought, until into consciousness has come the full possession of previously known facts in regard to that subject.

Thus the method of attacking history is similar to that of science. There is first the recognition of conditions, an attempt to relate the situation to any previously studied; then a hypothesis as to the effect of manipulation of conditions; then a study of the effect; and then generalization of results. In the study of industrial questions in different colonies the child must recognize and abstract the principle of the demand to be controlled through their assemblies alone, as the one element in common with all colonies which would lead them to resist oppression from England. The child does not always get these deeper truths in definite forms that he can state, but the method of work has been such as to make them a part of his study of the life of the people. They are in his mind as problems which the people have to solve. Further experience and study cannot fail to bring them out in fuller significance.

No definite time limit is assigned for the ending of colonial history. From six to nine months are usually spent on the pre-Revolutionary period. This often carries the study into the work of Group VII (average age, ten years).

It is unnecessary to state in detail the methods of studying the Revolution. In general it should be said that the same scheme is followed as in the earlier years, viz., taking only that which is typical and fundamental, and then dwelling so fully upon this that it is conceived as a vivid picture of the times. The main lines of study are (1) the physiographical and (2) a consideration of warfare as a means of reaching a more ultimate result; (3) the growth of the spirit of union which culminated in the Constitution. The study of the campaigns of the Revolution is an opportunity to become familiar with the physiography of the thirteen colonies. For the first time the country held in America by English-speaking people became known to them through actual survey of its natural lines of travel and the relations of the various lines to one another. The Alleghanies, which had protected the weak English settlements from the strong tribes of the Five Nations in the Mohawk valley, were seen by

England to be the possible means of isolating the New England colonies from New York and the southern colonies. Thus the reason is seen for the northern campaign of Burgoyne from the St. Lawrence to Lake Champlain and the Hudson, and for the desperate efforts of Washington to defend the Hudson River route from New York, as well as the importance of Burgoyne's capture. Strategic points are thus a question of physiography. The importance of holding New York and Philadelphia in the same way was due, not to the fact that they were centers of large populations, as children so often think, but to the facts which in the first place made them large centers of population. So here again, as in the study of Chicago, the reasons for the location of cities are reviewed.

The physiographic conditions of a country are largely responsible for its industries. The New England farmers had discovered that their barren hills furnished pasture for sheep and cattle, and that cattle and wool were readily exchanged in the West Indies, together with their fish, for molasses, sugar, etc. England had by law prevented this trade. The fact that the laws could be only partially enforced did not remove the irritation they caused. From the wool, felt was manufactured into hats for export. But complaint of the London merchants brought about the passing of a law to "prevent the exportation of hats out of any of his majesty's colonies or plantations in America, and to restrain the number of apprentices taken by the hatmakers in the said colonies or plantations, for the better encouraging and making of hats in Great Britain." To understand the irritation such a law would cause, it is necessary to recall the stage of development of manufactures before the Revolution. In the study of textiles the children have worked out the invention of the various steps in the manufacture of cloth, from the primitive period, with the simple spindle and rough loom which limited the size of the cloth to the size of the loom, to the colonial period, when the heddle, roller, and fly-shuttle had been introduced, though all power is still by hand, and all manufacture in the home. They are therefore able to comprehend the change that would come with the beginning of inventions which brought in the factory system. They are told that steam had not been applied to machinery as a power before 1769, and that the spinning jenny (a frame with a number of spindles side by side, so that many threads might be spun at once) was not invented until 1770; that the use of water-power for Arkwright's loom was not used before 1771, and the "mule"—a combination of the spinning jenny and the water frame—not before 1779. When they understand how the power of spinning was increased by these three inventions, and that of weaving by the use of the power loom (1785), they comprehend how these inventions, rather than the removal of adverse English control, made possible the rapid growth of manufactories at the close of the Revolution.

The laws against exporting their own manufactured articles touched closely many individuals and aroused direct opposition, because of the domestic state of manufacturing at that time. The fact that trade regulations were modified because of the opposition expressed did not remove the uncertainty felt as to the use of English control over the colonists. And when the complete enforcement of even so small a tax as that on tea is attempted, the effect on people who had in mind the previous laws, and the results which might possibly follow success in enforcing even a small tax, is appreciated.

In the study of the Revolution, if the breaking down of opposition is conceived as the main end in view, the battles become but mere incidents in the struggle, and the unwholesome sensationalism of their details is to some extent avoided. It is an effort on the part of each combatant to see whether this last battle will not bring about the surrender of the opponent. So the center of thought and study is taken from the battles and focused on the ethical and scientific side of the struggle. First, which side is justified in beginning a resort to brute force as the only method of attaining its end? This consideration includes the study of characters strong in their belief in the justness of the cause, and willing to undergo great personal sacrifice and hardships, and even death, for the sake of a cause which they believe to be so vital to human progress. In the second place, on the scientific side, it is a question of what conditions must be taken into consideration, and how they can most easily be made to serve the end in view. This brings in the intellectual side, conceiving plans and carrying out tactics.

Following the terms of the treaty of peace, the acquisition of further territory by the United States, giving it its present boundaries, is studied.

The attempt has been made in the next year (average age, eleven) to give to the study of American history the same balance and completeness, through getting an outside point of view, that are given to the eight-year-old children in the study of the Phœnicians and early world-explorers. In each of these years the effort is made to gather together the knowledge of the two preceding years and grasp its significance as a whole in larger relations.

The attempt was made to see the development of the American colonies from a European point of view. England, France, and Spain were taken as the countries which attempted colonization in the New World, in the East Indies, Africa, and Australia. The methods and aims in claiming and holding territory; the character of the settlements; the connections with the mother-country; the comparison of colonies established by a country in different parts of the world (as England's colonies in America, India, Africa, and Australia); the conflicts of different countries over land claims, and the working out of some principles of international law; a comparison of the different national methods of establishing and controlling colonies—these were some of the points taken up. This scheme has not been sufficiently worked out to report upon in full. One of its chief difficulties has been the lack of books containing the facts written in a style that children of this age can read.

In brief, it may be said that the outline of work gave an opportunity to gain a general world-view of the subject of colonization. It was necessary to compare climates, to realize the physiography of the different regions, the industrial products possible, and the trade routes open for their exchange with products of other countries. The study also brought out the changes resulting in European countries from the opening of new lands, the knowledge of new products, and the necessity of dealing with larger areas, larger masses of people, new conditions. The concepts of society have thus been increased from the consideration of a single tribe and its problems to the consideration, comparison, and judging of nations. Throughout this year the point of view was the same as with the two years just preceding. The conditions were to be recognized as forming problems which the nation had to work out. Sometimes the problem was two-sided, the mother country forming one part, the colony the other. The number of conditions to be recognized and held in mind was much greater than in any preceding year, and the problem had to be stated in larger terms; but it was power to do this that was aimed at as well as the knowledge of facts involved.

The foregoing is a report of history, in which the subject-matter and method of treatment have been made a matter of experimentation, and the results have been deemed satisfactory. Other periods of history have been studied, especially that of England and of Rome; but the best age at which to introduce these, and the character of the subject-matter and method of treatment, have not been sufficiently determined to make a report desirable at this time.

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